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ABSTRACT

Persons concerned with both higher education and community service came together in mid-1969 to discuss the pros and cons of service-learning programs and to determine the need for such programs. The participants at the conference recommended: (1) that colleges and universities encourage student community service, assist in assuring disciplined learning as part of this service, and award academic recognition for the learning acquired by students in service projects; (2) that federal, regional, and state and local governments, colleges and universities, and private organizations provide opportunities and supply the funds required for as many students as are needed and are willing to engage in service activities; and (3) that students, public and private agency officials, college faculty and staff, cooperate in the administration of programs in which students both serve and learn. (Author/HS)

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ATLANTA SERVICE-LEARNING CONFERENCE REPORT

1970

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ATLANTA SERVICE-LEARNING CONFERENCE
% SOUTHERN REGIONAL EDUCATION BOARD
130 SIXTH STREET, N.W.
ATLANTA, GEORGIA 30313

The ATLANTA SERVICE-LEARNING CONFERENCE finds

- - - - - that colleges and universities are aware of the needs of the community but are not sufficiently attuned to meeting them

- - - - - that well over half the 40,000 college students in greater Atlanta represent a largely untapped reservoir of persons who are ready, willing and able to tackle urban development problems in Atlanta

- - - - - that only two major hurdles - - money and academic recognition - - stand in the way of large numbers of students undertaking assignments in such fields as education, health, job development, pollution control and legal services

and recommends

- - - - - that colleges and universities encourage student community service, assist in assuring disciplined learning as part of this service, and award academic recognition for the learning acquired by students in service projects

- - - - - that federal, regional, state and local governments, colleges and universities, and private organizations provide opportunities and supply the funds required for as many students as are needed and are willing to engage in service activities

- - - - - that students, public and private agency officials, college faculty and staff, cooperate in the administration of programs in which students both serve and learn

- - - - - that such programs be given the generic name of

SERVICE - LEARNING

whose definition is "the integration of the accomplishment of a needed task with educational growth," and whose goals are:

- - - - - to accomplish needed public services

- - - - - to add breadth and depth and relevance to students' learning

- - - - - to offer a productive avenue of communication and cooperation between public agencies and institutions of higher education

- - - - - to give students exposure to, testing of, and experience in public service careers

- - - - - to increase the number of well-qualified young people entering public service careers, and

- - - - -to give young people, whatever line of work they choose to enter, front-line experience with today's problems so they will be better equipped to solve them as adult citizens.

S P O N S O R S

The City of Atlanta

The Atlanta Urban Corps

Economic Opportunity Atlanta

The Colleges and Universities of Atlanta

Department of Health, Education and Welfare

The Southern Regional Education Board

Volunteers in Service to America

The Peace Corps

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I. INTRODUCTION

To serve and to learn; these fundamental goals of our society are engrained in the American rhetoric.

But how to serve? and how to learn? An institutionalized, bureaucratized 20th Century America has effectively limited the answers to these questions. For "service to country" America legislatively requires military duty only, which many of today's young people find morally questionable. For "learning" we have complex university systems with limited ability to respond to the individual and often with old-fashioned views of what is education and what is not.

However, considerable attention is currently being given to the role of universities in service to society. At one extreme are arguments that community involvement by an academic institution threatens its integrity and drains its resources. At the other is the view of the university as a shaper of society with special social responsibilities because of its objectivity, standards, and resources of knowledge.

These arguments about campus-in-community may obscure fundamental questions of the role of the community as an educational resource. Can the university perform its primary functions of education and the discovery of new knowledge without direct involvement in society? Can educational institutions develop the type of manpower needed by a rapidly changing society, both as professionals and as citizens in a democracy, without including the resources of societal experience in the educational process? How might community service, sought by many students, best be designed as a learning experience and integrated with other

aspects of a total educational program?

THE SERVICE-LEARNING CONCEPT

It is the thesis of the convenors of this Conference--many of whom are at the interface between education and community--that by combining the needs of society and resources of education both will better be served. It is hypothesized that the tension between the practical urgent demands of community and the requirements of disciplined rational thought of education can be a very productive force for the development of society and for learning and the advancement of knowledge.

This combination of action and reflection, of experience and examination, this integration of service and learning can foster a style of life where education and vocation are parts of the same fabric and the gap between community and education is closed. Simply stated, then, service-learning is an integration of the accomplishment of a needed task with educational growth.

It is clear that greater student involvement in community affairs is already here and is growing. Students want it, agencies need their services, colleges increasingly encourage it. National legislation to supplement Peace Corps, VISTA, Teacher Corps, and other programs is under consideration in Washington. Are we prepared to utilize these growing opportunities productively for all parties?

A new approach is both necessary and possible. It requires new meaning for "practicality", new openness to change, new commitment to experimentation, new acceptance of the ability of youth, and indeed new social institutions and attitudes.

It was to search for these new attitudes and processes that the Atlanta Service-Learning Conference was convened in mid-1969.

THE ATLANTA SERVICE-LEARNING CONFERENCE

Although there is a growing inclination to accept the service-learning concept as a valuable element of a learning experience, there is relatively little understanding of how the abstraction can be translated into a practicable model. Local leaders recognized the urgency for developing this model. Consequently, the Atlanta Service-Learning Conference was organized in the spring of 1969 to explore the implications of the service-learning concept, to define the elements necessary for a successful program, and to structure and implement a program in the Atlanta area to serve as a model for similar programs in other urban centers. The diversity of the sponsoring organizations is evidence of the breadth of interest and support at both national and local levels for the development of this program. The list of sponsors includes:

The City of Atlanta
The Atlanta Urban Corps
Economic Opportunity Atlanta
Colleges and Universities of Atlanta
U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
The Southern Regional Education Board
Volunteers in Service to America
The Peace Corps

With the addition of Atlanta businessmen and persons from outside Atlanta, the sponsors are representative of the persons participating in the Conference.

In the organizational meeting, the sponsoring agencies decided on a six-month period for the Conference during which the participants might utilize all available resources and examine in depth several important aspects of the service-learning concept. In order to facilitate this type of study, the conference was divided into six work groups: Research, Service, Learning, Curriculum and Inter-Institutional Relations, Finance, and Methods and Programs.

The first session of the Conference was held on June 30 and July 1, 1969. More than 300 persons attended, including most of the Atlanta Urban Corps student interns. The meeting included a keynote address by U. S. Commissioner of Education James E. Allen, Jr., seminars to consider the service-learning concept, and organizational meetings of the work groups.

The Research Work Group, making primary use of an SREB-Department of Labor student manpower study, made available its findings to the others. Conference-wide sessions with an average attendance of 50 persons were sponsored by the Service Work Group on August 18, the Learning Group on August 19, the Curriculum and Finance Work Groups on December 11, and the Methods and Programs Work Group on January 13, 1970. Also, on January 13, a set of observations and recommendations on service-learning was presented, debated, revised and endorsed.

Research surveys and meetings were not the only means employed in the exploration of the service-learning concept. Several hundred college students were engaged in public service programs in Atlanta during the summer of 1969, and many of them participated in the Conference. Several of the conclusions of this report stem directly from their experiences and observations as summer interns.

Largest of the intern programs is the Atlanta Urban Corps, created in 1969 by students and city and regional officials. As members of the Atlanta Urban Corps, 220 students served full-time throughout the summer with 15 city and 35 private nonprofit organizations in metropolitan Atlanta. Financial support was provided by the agencies themselves and by the federal College Work-Study Program, VISTA, the Southern Regional Education Board, and Atlanta businessmen and foundations.

Nine staff members of the Urban Corps were engaged to help the interns make their summer experiences educationally relevant through such methods as seminars and individual counseling.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In its brief life-span, the Atlanta Service-Learning Conference has had three mailing addresses; namely, the Peace Corps (Atlanta), the Atlanta Urban Corps, and the Southern Regional Education Board. These agencies typify the broadly based sponsorship of the Conference. Among the persons contributing their time and talents are the following:

College faculty and staff members: Jackson Carroll, Emory; Robert Clayton, Spelman; Ed DuCree, Emory; James Garner, Georgia Tech; Arthur G. Hansen, Georgia Tech; Edward Holmes, Emory; Eleanor Main, Emory; Justine S. Mann, Georgia Southern; E. Phillip Morgan, Emory; David Palmer, Georgia State; William Pendleton, Emory; Charles Pyles, Georgia State; Timothy Ryles, Georgia State; Jerry Sanders, Georgia State; Carl Wieck, Spelman; Russell Williams, Spelman; Prince Wilson, Atlanta University Center.

College students: Tom Affleck, Emory; Truly Bracken, Agnes Scott; Sally Cantor, Lake Forest (Illinois); Dan Christenberry, Georgia Tech; Marcus J. Dash, Georgia Tech; Carthur Drake, Morehouse; Kytle Frye III, Auburn; Douglas Haire, Georgia State; Babs Kalvelage, Georgia State; Melinda Lawrence, University of North Carolina; Joe Menez, Oglethorpe; Ken Millwood, Georgia State; Marlene Rounds, Atlanta University; Leon Scandrick, DeKalb Community College; Teia Sinkfield, Spelman; Lonnie Stewart, Georgia State; Tara Swartsel, Agnes Scott; Plemon Whatley, Harvard; David Whelan, Georgia Tech; Sam Williams, Georgia Tech; Gail Zauderer, Agnes Scott.

Agency officials and others: James E. Allen, Jr., U. S. Office of Education; William Allison, Economic Opportunity Atlanta; James Austin, Georgia Municipal Association; Peter Austin, Peace Corps; H. Jefferey Binda, VISTA; Linda Bulloch, Southern Regional Education Board; Charles Carlton, Department of Health, Education and Welfare; Mary Ann Carroll, Peace Corps; Ross Coggins, VISTA; Calvin Cox, Atlanta Constitution; Paul Cromwell,

Teacher Corps; Sue Day, HEW; Donald J. Eberly, National Service Secretariat; Michael B. Goldstein, Urban Corps National Development Office; Tom Houser, Peace Corps; the Rev. John Howard, Wheat Street Baptist Church; Lee Huebner, the White House; Bill Jones, HEW; Joe D. Kimmins, Peace Corps; Alexandra Mettler, SREB; Robert Nelson, Peace Corps; William R. Ramsay, SREB; Barbara Rudisill, Atlanta Urban Corps; Logan Saiada, U. S. Office of Education; Robert L. Sigmon, SREB; Sue Zander, Atlanta Urban Corps.

Seven Atlanta Urban Corps interns operated an Environmental Studies program at the Kennesaw Mountain National Battlefield Park. They conducted tours for inner-city youngsters through the park and prepared teaching methods and materials to be used in presenting the environmental studies in the public schools.

II. RESEARCH

Several research studies and surveys have been undertaken in connection with the Atlanta Service-Learning Conference. The major project, the Student Manpower Survey for Atlanta, was sponsored by the U. S. Department of Labor and conducted by the Southern Regional Education Board. Findings from this survey are described extensively in this report

Another survey, sponsored by the Peace Corps and conducted by Professor William Pendleton of Emory University, is not yet complete. This survey will result in a list of courses in Atlanta area colleges which include, or could include, service-learning experiences. Preliminary returns suggest that receptivity by faculty members to the inclusion of service-learning experiences is much greater than the present number of curricular off-campus programs would indicate.

Other surveys were conducted among Atlanta Urban Corps interns, their supervisors, and other agency officials. Many of the results of these surveys are already incorporated into the Atlanta Urban Corps program; some results form the basis for recommendations made in this report.

STUDENT MANPOWER SURVEY FOR ATLANTA

The manpower survey questionnaire (Appendix B) was prepared in early 1969 and pretested among some 50 Atlanta college students in March. It was then revised and was administered to some 1700 students at eight area colleges between April 10 and June 10, 1969. Time and money did not permit the administration of a highly sophisticated instrument to all students, nor to a predetermined random sample. Nonetheless, 1668 students from

Agnes Scott College, Clark College, Emory University, Georgia State University, Georgia Tech, Morris Brown College, Oglethorpe College and Spelman College did respond to the survey. Furthermore, several internal checks were made and it was ascertained that all but an insignificant handful of students gave consistent answers. The evidence is strong that the survey results speak honestly for the 1668 respondents, at least.

A variety of techniques was used to obtain answers from a broad spectrum of students. At Agnes Scott, the questionnaire was placed in every fifth mailbox and collected within 24 hours. At Georgia State, the surveyor took the questionnaires to classes having various types and ages of students to complete the questionnaire, seeking to obtain a representative sample by class and sex.

The number of completed questionnaires from each college and respective enrollments for autumn 1968 are given in the chart below:

Colleges	No. of Returns	Fall of 1968 Enrollment
Agnes Scott	136	739
Clark	100	1,003
Emory	261	4,945
Georgia State	466	10,454
Georgia Tech	402	7,951
Morris Brown	81	1,372
Oglethorpe	150	1,100
Spelman	72	945
Total	1,688	28,509

Enrollment at other Atlanta area institutions of higher education in autumn 1968 is given in the next chart:

Colleges	Fall 1968 Enrollment
Atlanta Christian College	196
Atlanta School of Art	147
Atlanta University	1,056
Columbia Theological School	211
DeKalb Community College	3,827

Colleges	Fall 1968 Enrollment
Kennesaw Junior College	1,278
Morehouse College	1,035
Interdenominational Theological Center	113
Total	7,863
Grand Total	36,372

The 36,372 college and university students represent a significant resource for the Atlanta area. When combined with 20,470 students at the University of Georgia in Athens and 3,344 students at West Georgia College in Carrollton, both of which are well represented in Atlanta intern programs, the total number of students is 60,176, or nearly 1% of the nation's 7,000,000 students in higher education. The basic data on the survey respondents are given in this chapter and survey findings relevant to the several dimensions of service-learning are given in Appendix B. In reviewing the completed questionnaires and survey data, several flaws are apparent although none of them appears to be of sufficient magnitude to alter the findings appreciably. The survey accomplishes its objective; namely, to give "the dimensions of student manpower potential and use in the Atlanta metropolitan area."

Manpower Resources: The nearly 40,000 college students in Atlanta represent a largely untapped reservoir of persons who are ready, willing and able to tackle urban development problems of Atlanta. And, according to the manpower survey conducted, only two major hurdles stand in the way of undertaking assignments in such fields as education, health, job development and legal services. The hurdles are money and academic recognition.

Although there is much talk about volunteer service and a relevant education, the need for money remains the determining factor for most students. For example, during the academic year 1968-69, 72% of the students who worked or volunteered their services did so primarily to earn

money. And during the summer of 1968, the comparable figure for students surveyed was 75%.

Looking ahead to the summer of 1969, 73% said they planned to work and only 1/2 of 1% planned to do voluntary service. Student employment was the primary source of income for 23% of those surveyed and the secondary source of income for an additional 36% of the students.

About one-half of the 1668 students surveyed were employed or engaged in volunteer service during the academic year 1968-69; during the summer, the proportion so occupied rose to nearly three-quarters. A majority of the students, both during the summer and the academic year, were employed by private businesses. Nearly 10% were employed by public agencies during the academic year and about 20% were so employed during the summer.

If students had the option to participate in urban service-learning assignments, about 70% of those surveyed said they would choose to do so during the academic year and some 80% indicated they would select this option during the summer.

Thus, while utilization of student manpower in Atlanta is already significant, it has considerable room for expansion, especially in the public sector.

Current student involvement with community problems occurs largely through campus service organizations directed by students or through meeting field experience requirements in such fields as the social sciences, divinity, medicine, law and education. A third and most recent vehicle for social involvement is the Atlanta Urban Corps. Typically there is no relationship between campus service organizations and academic studies, yet the survey suggests that if such linkages were made, the number of students engaged in urban problems would rise significantly.

As indicated above, employment of students by public agencies is at a low level. Even adding those students serving with churches and private non-profit organizations does not add appreciably

to the proportion of students in some form of public service activity. Individual experience is, of course, varied, but the survey suggests that students find public service work to be more academically related than employment in the private sector.

The Typical Student: In the summer of 1968, the typical Atlanta college student surveyed worked full-time in the private sector primarily to earn money. The job required that he make very little, if any, use of his previous education and training and there was no significant relationship between what he did and his academic program. He earned from $1.50 to $3.00 per hour and found his job through personal contact, whether at home, school or through previous employment.

In contrast, the typical Atlanta college student would have preferred, in the summer of 1969, to have worked in the public sector in a field such as health, education, recreation, legal services or job development. He would have needed to earn from $1.50 to $3.00 per hour and academic credit, while desirable, would not have been essential.

These survey results were buttressed by the experience of the Atlanta Urban Corps. Although applications for the Urban Corps were not invited until after many college students had already lined up their summer jobs, some 1,000 students applied to join the Urban Corps in late spring to work in public sector jobs such as those described above.

During the academic year 1968-69, slightly over half the students in the survey engaged in paid employment or volunteer service. The typical student worked off-campus in the private sector for over 10 hours per week and was paid from $1.50 to $3.00 per hour. He took the job primarily to earn money; his previous education and training was utilized only slightly, and there was no relationship between his assignment and his regular academic program.

Family Income Levels: The apparent affluence of survey respondents was somewhat higher than that of college students across the country. The chart below compares family incomes for the students surveyed with those for entering college freshmen in 1968, according to a survey by the American Council on Education.

Family Income	Atlanta	U.S.A.
Below $10,000	35%	49%
$10,000 to $20,000	38%	38%
Above $20,000	27%	14%

It is not clear from the facts available whether the Atlanta student's family income is higher than the national average, whether the respondents were above the Atlanta students' average income, or whether the difference was due to a combination of these factors.

Male-Female Differences: The basic statistics reveal several differences between men and women students who completed survey questionnaires. More men than women are graduate students by a ratio of nearly four to one. More women students are younger; 89% of them are under age 22 compared with 75% of the men.

Also, men are more likely to be married and to have dependents than women. One man in five is married compared to one woman in nine. And 17% of the men have more than one dependent compared to only 3% of the women.

There is no great difference in permanent residence between male and female students but there is, of course, complete difference in draft status. A majority (59%) of the male students are classified II-S, so the only thing standing between them and prime liability for being drafted is their academic status. Slightly under 10% of the male students are veterans or classified unfit for military service.

Women had more transfer plans than men. 13% of them planned to attend a different school the

following year as compared to only 6% of the men.

About the same percentage (9%) of men as of women had participated in a service program that exposed them to different cultural surroundings. This question had various interpretations, including one person who had served overseas with the Armed Forces, another who had lived abroad, and one who had been in a Junior Year Abroad program.

Where to Find A Job: For the sake of comparison, the answers to the question, "Which do you consider most effective in finding a summer job?" are broken down by predominately black and white colleges.

	Black	White
Public Employment Agency	22%	3%
Private Employment Agency	4	3
School Placement Office	10	15
Contact at Home	6	29
Contact at School Outside Placement Office	6	8
Want-ads	10	5
Previous Employment	34	21
Don't Know	8	17

Thus, personal contact appears to be a more important factor in finding a job for white students than for black. For the latter, public employment agencies are relatively more helpful while previous employment is effective for both black and white students.

III. SERVICE

With the advent of the Peace Corps ten years ago, educators and high officials questioned whether recent college graduates could perform useful service in two-year assignments overseas. Now the question is seldom raised, and rightfully so. In addition to college graduates, hundreds of thousands of college students, high school students, even high school dropouts, have demonstrated the ability to serve human needs in such fields as health and education.

The point was proven again in 1969 by the interns in Atlanta. The operation of Rent-A-Kid was entirely dependent on Atlanta Urban Corps members, who secured thousands of jobs for the youth of the city. One intern refused to leave work each day until he had found jobs for at least eight youngsters in his assignment with Rent-A-Kid. Another Urban Corps intern saved the city thousands of dollars by convincing the authorities to revise the purchasing procedure.

CRITERIA FOR SERVICE

In order for a project to be included in a service-learning program, the service must be identified as a real need by the person, group of persons, or agency being served. Also, the student being asked to serve must view the assignment as one that would respond to a real need. A useful approach is for students themselves to interview officials regarding possible assignments. In this way, the student can appraise the potential usefulness of a position and the official can become acquainted with a student's outlook on the program. Priority for determining the learning potential of an assignment rests with the individual student. When the service-learning program

is a large one, it would be unwieldy for every applicant to sort through all the openings. In such cases, it is important for the application form to be designed so that it elicits the applicant's preference.

Experience tells us that most young people prefer to give "direct service," where they are involved face-to-face with someone in need, than "indirect service," where students spend most of their time with machines or paper. Accordingly, most positions should be of the direct service variety. The only services students should not be asked to perform are those well beyond their levels of competence or those which students are not allowed to perform. Indirect service assignments involving policy making, social research and administration can be beneficial for all concerned, particularly if undertaken by students who have completed a direct service assignment.

Requirements of some programs will limit acceptable types of agencies. For example, participants in the College Work-Study Program are limited to public agencies and private non-profit organizations. Otherwise, more emphasis should be placed on the nature of the assignment than the nature of the agency. It was pointed out, for example, that both the Defense Department and the Black Panthers, organizations associated in the public image with violence, are engaged in basic health and education programs which could provide useful service-learning experiences.

While each service-learning program must decide at which agencies it will seek intern positions, we recommend a broad spectrum so as to accommodate the interests of many students. To illustrate, Table A lists the agencies which engaged Atlanta Urban Corps participants in the summer of 1969.

Similarly, a variety of fields, including health, the environment, education and other community services should be available to service-learning students. Apart from such matters as stipends and academic credit, the major criteria

TABLE A

ATLANTA URBAN CORPS
Initial Summer Program - 1969

City Departments

Accounting Division
Attorney's Office
Aviation Department
Business License Division
Budgeting & Research
Community Relations Committee
Motor Transportation Division
Mayor's Office
Parks & Recreation
Personnel Department
Planning Department
Purchasing Department
Public Library
Sanitation Division
Traffic Engineering
Water Works
Youth Council

Non-City Agencies

Academy Theatre
American Cancer Society
Atlanta Girls Club
Atlanta Housing Conference
Atlanta Service-Learning Conference
Boy Scouts of America
Community Arts, Inc.
Community Council of Atlanta Area
Crime Commission
Decatur-Dekalb YMCA
Economic Opportunity Atlanta
Emmaus House
Emory Legal Aid Service Center
Family Counseling Center
Fulton County Government
Fulton County Health Department
Gate City Day Nursery
Georgia Easter Seal Society
Georgia State University Department of Educational Psychology
Georgia State Employment Service
Grady Homes Girls Club
Grady Memorial Hospital
Kennesaw National Battlefield Park
Kirkwood Christian Center
Literacy Action Foundation
Mennonite House
National Welfare Rights Organization
Phyllis Wheatley YWCA
Sarah D. Murphy Homes
Southern Regional Education Board
Southern Consortium for International Education
Southwest YMCA
St. Vincent de Paul Society
The Street Theatre
Urban Lab in Education
U. S. Immigration Department
Vine City Foundation
Wheat Street Baptist Church

for most students are that the position offer personal satisfaction, a chance to help others, and an opportunity to change things or to make a difference.

DURATION AND AMOUNT OF SERVICE

Close attention must be given to the duration of the service assignment and whether it should be part-time or full-time. It should be long enough for the student to complete his assigned project. And its intensity should be consistent with optimal service. In some cases, such as individual tutoring or mental health companionship projects, personal contact of a year or more is important so that part-time service with regularity is satisfactory. In most other cases, although full-time service is sometimes less convenient for students than part-time, we find that the full-time participant tends to engage himself more fully with his task, that the service rendered is normally greater for equivalent periods of time, and that the academic payoff is greater.

The amount of service that students should give is limited only by the needs. Three months after it was launched, the Atlanta Urban Corps reported a demand for some 800 summer interns, and "That was only scratching the surface." With a population of 1,300,000, the public service manpower needs of metropolitan Atlanta that could be met by students may total some 15,000. A properly balanced service-learning program would have benefits accruing to all participants. The service-learning students serve the people and the agency. The academic advisers and program staff serve the students. The college is served by the increased knowledge of the participating students and faculty, and by the goodwill generated in the community served by its students.

Presently, colleges are aware of the needs of the community but are not sufficiently attuned to meeting them. The hurdles to greater involvement are both conceptual and practical. Conceptually, many educators hesitate to engage their institutions in community service because they

view it as a one-way street of taking time away from education to give service and receiving nothing in return. Practically, they think whatever service activities are undertaken should be run by the university.

Colleges should not make the mistake of setting themselves up as the major administrators of service, but they must be made to recognize society's need for it as well as their own need for the knowledge and wisdom that derive from it.

Unless there is genuine cooperation among agency personnel, students, faculty and staff, a service-learning program will probably be short-lived or will become unbalanced and reflect the interests of the dominant group. For example, agencies would be more interested in "getting the job done" than worrying about educational aspects of service-learning assignments. And if the service-learning idea is pushed only by agency officials and college faculty and staff, students will shun it as just another product of "the system."

In order to improve the quality of the service given and to enhance the experience for the participants, several procedures and techniques are recommended by the Conference:

A. The responsibilities of the agency, the student, the academic adviser and the administering agency should be put in writing.
B. Follow-through is needed so that (1) student recommendations will have impact and (2) succeeding generations of students at a given agency build upon their predecessors' experience rather than simply repeat it.
C. The most effective service can be given at times by individual students working separately and at other times by a class of college students or a team of interns working together. In the latter case, extra care must be taken to ascertain that the service is both needed and

desired by the local community, and that the student group will not leave an unfinished product.

D. Students in service-learning assigments must be able to communicate with one another to improve the service given and to improve the program in the future. (Some ways: newsletters, seminars, hostels, weekend retreats.)

E. In areas where the residents are predominantly of one color or ethnic origin, we recommend integrated groups of students whose leaders are persons with whom the residents can identify through color, language and background.

Eight Atlanta Urban Corps interns served with the Atlanta Children and Youth Services Council. Three students established a Youth Walk-In Center which was available to counsel any young person, make necessary referrals, and provided continuous service and personal relationships. Five students worked directly with the administration of the Council's summer program ranging from publicity director to clerical assistants.

IV. LEARNING

Through informal discussions with people involved in all aspects of service-learning, it appears that learning is an element of any service experience. This hypothesis had its most severe tests in those situations where interns were assigned to what they considered socially irrelevant tasks. One student in such a position reported that he had not learned anything; he then continued at length and with insight to dissect the agency where he was assigned and to point out its weaknesses. Perhaps this type of experience should be classified as "negative learning", as with the scientific experiment that fails, but it can be a most meaningful kind of learning, nonetheless.

Even in more positive experiences, learning retains its latent position; it is never completely formalized by the intern. To assist with the conceptualization of learning should therefore be one of the major goals of service-learning administrators. Further support for the need to conceptualize learning comes from Roger Harrison and Richard Hopkins (see Bibliography). They explain that the role of the teacher is to help the individual in determining

> what meaning the experience had for him (the learner) and what, if any, connections and generalizations he can make between this particular experience and what he knows about himself, his goals in the cross-cultural (service-learning) situation, his own culture and the alien culture.

They go on to explain that it is the teacher's role to ask the right questions. "Without this kind of guidance," they elaborate, "it is just as

possible for a person to have a packed and emotionally laden but conceptually meaningless learning experience as it is for him to have an intellectualized and detached but emotionally bland one."

TYPES OF LEARNING

What an intern learns from a service-learning experience depends upon such factors as his background, his assignment, his course of studies, his colleagues, and his counselor. Various types of learning have been described by interns and when these types are classified, they fall into the following ten categories.

1. Content Each intern's project requires becoming acquainted with subject matter in a practical context. Assistance is given in relating the specific content of the intern's project to the general field of concern.

2. Problem Solving The intern's project is defined in terms of locally defined needs and objectives and is an exercise in problem solving including identification of resources, exploration of alternatives and suggestion of choices.

3. Institutional and Personal Relations Interns learn about institutions and their interactions and the relationships between individuals and institutions in our society.

4. Communication Skills Skills of communication are required and experienced in interpersonal communications at a variety of levels, in oral presentations of findings and recommendations and in written reports.

5. Research and Related Techniques Most projects require the effective collection and treatment of data and the intern learns methods and procedures of research.

6. Process of Change Emphasis is placed on the understanding of change and the absence of a static situation in social and economic life. Each intern is involved in part of the process of change.

7. Interdisciplinary Relations Projects are not limited to one academic discipline or functional area and an awareness of the interrelationships of problems, approaches and fields of study comes into focus.

8. Learning Techniques The ability to pursue learning autonomously is stressed and assistance given in the techniques of identifying sources of information relating observations and experiences to models and theories and setting learning goals.

9. Career Development Frequently the service-learning experience is related to a career choice which the intern is contemplating. By trying out a possible career in a real environment, the intern can decide whether he had made a satisfying career choice.

10. Testing of Academic Learning The intern may find that some textbook theories fail when put to the test, and that some textbook learning takes on deeper meaning through pertinent experiences.

These kinds of learning are similar to those derived from field experience programs in such fields as science, engineering and the upper levels of education, medicine, social work and public administration. Now, experience-based learning should be extended to include preparation for citizenship and the exploration and testing of careers in the public service field.

College students preparing for a service assignment should concentrate on particular skills or information, such as interviewing techniques, housing or unemployment laws and regulations, and

methods for obtaining certain municipal services. Also, an intern should visit the agency where he is to serve and meet with his supervisor during the training period.

TECHNIQUES TO ENHANCE LEARNING

To improve the quality of the academic counseling and to enhance the value of the learning experience, six suggestions are made for full-time internships.

> First, the learning side of the idea should have a time of its own during the work week. The intern should be allowed one morning or afternoon per week for individual counseling or linkage seminars. This allocation of time should not alarm the project supervisors. After all, most of them are putting up only part of the stipend and for them to get the students' services for 90% of the work week is still a good bargain. Besides, the service can be enhanced by effectively coupling it with learning. Linkage seminars include 10 to 15 students and an academic counselor. They can be held anywhere and usually cover a discussion of the week's peak experiences by interns and a review of progress toward the learning objectives.

> Second, specific time allocation is also needed for developing in students a recognition of the importance attached to the learning dimension of their experience. If counseling sessions are scheduled only after-hours and/or on weekends, the attendance can be expected to be quite poor.

> Third, persons designated as academic counselors themselves need training and supervision. They need to discuss the service-learning concept with experienced persons; they need to be acquainted with techniques of individual counseling and linkage seminars; they probably will need to be assigned a weekly schedule, and they will need a competent supervisor.

Fourth, the students must be required to think in advance about what they are going to do. They should develop, either individually or in small groups, sets of questions dealing with such matters as 1) the workings of local government, 2) inter-personal relationships, 3) problem-solving, and 4) special items pertaining to their specific assignments. These questions should form a framework within which the learning experience would be enhanced throughout the assignment and in writing it up at the conclusion.

Fifth, faculty members can be asked to orient and to train students in their areas of competence, to design service-learning courses, to serve as academic counselors for service-learning students, to lead service-learning teams, and to give direct service during the school year or in an "urban sabbatical." Rewards such as money, community recognition, reduction in course load, and research-related projects are justified incentives for faculty participation.

Sixth, academic counselors may be needed to assist students to interpret their experiences in the light of both their service and their learning objectives.

Students learn from experience as they do in other situations--through observation, through constructing hypotheses and testing them, through having to respond to new situations, and through practice in analyzing new experiences. Learning can be measured by "before and after" tests, by someone who has known the student for a long time and observes him closely to discern changes during the service-learning experience, by performance on new tasks, and by the demonstration of learning at seminars, individual counseling sessions, and final reports.

Not all learning experiences are objective; some are subjective and it should be recognized that they can be fully as valid as objective learn-

ing. Also, students reported learning more from assignments which involved working with people than those which did not.

A major hurdle to learning is the sometimes encountered student attitude that he should serve without any desire for personal reward. This attitude can have the effect of so emphasizing the emotional aspects of service that it closes the mind to a learning situation. (Unrewarded service may be the way which some affluent students or frustrated individuals choose to work off feelings of guilt. Such persons honestly may have to go through a period of self-imposed servitude before fully engaging in the service-learning prosess.)

One Atlanta Urban Corps intern worked with postpartum patients at the Grady Memorial Hospital Maternity and Infant Care Project. She helped to establish the Grady Family Planning Clinic and she encouraged patients to participate in it.

V. CURRICULUM

As shown in the Student Manpower Survey (Appendix B), Questions 31-36, and 44-45, a strong curricular linkage with service activities would increase the number of students in service-learning projects. According to the Survey (Question 38) slightly over half the students returning to college in 1969-70 said they planned to take a work or service assignment. While only one student in seven was prepared to serve without pay, the majority of all students returning to campus in 1969-70 said they would be interested in working off-campus in a position which paid $1.60 per hour and gave three hours per semester of academic credit.

Looking even further ahead, the students surveyed expressed strong interest in a service-learning curriculum, one which combines meaningful work assignments with academic studies. They were asked to respond to the following alternative curriculum:

> Suppose you could choose to spend one-fourth of your time in college in meaningful work assignments in the human service or economic development fields. You would have a job supervisor and an academic advisor, attend seminar discussions and prepare a final report. Your course requirements would be reduced by one-fourth of the present total. Assume no increase in cost of your education.

Nearly three out of five students reported that they would probably select the above option and nearly all of them would want assignments re-

lated to their field of study. Most of the students--two out of three--would prefer an assignment in metropolitan Atlanta while the others were about evenly split between an assignment elsewhere in the U.S.A. or in a foreign country.

Among students opting for the alternative curriculum, about helf would choose to work part-time throughout college and the other half would prefer full-time assignments. Among the latter, nearly half would work full-time during summers, nearly one-fourth of the students would work for one academic quarter during each year in college, and the remaining quarter would substitute the assignment for their sophomore, junior, or senior year in college.

LEVEL OF PARTICIPATION

What is the maxium number of students who would participate in a service-learning curriculum? Nearly 75% of the students were engaged in work or volunteer service in summer 1968 and the same proportion expected to work or serve during summer 1969. Similarly, just over half the student's worked or served during academic year 1968-69 and the same proportion expected to do so for the following academic year.

As for intentions, the highest number is the figure of 81.5% of all students who would have chosen an urban internship in Atlanta in the summer of 1969 if they received from three to six hours of academic credit and if the size of the stipend was commensurate with their financial need During the academic year, 70% of the students said they would be interested in working or serving off campus if they received three hours of credit and were paid at the rate of $1.60 per hour.

Judging from the survey, the upper limit for the number of students prepared to serve without compensation is about 15%. During the school year the proportion of all students giving volunteer service was about 6.5%; during the summer, it was about 2.5%. However, their intentions for the future were more generous. Nearly 21% said they would probably enroll in a service-learning in-

ternship that carried no academic credit and no stipend. Almost 14% said they would be interested in volunteering for off-campus service in the coming year, and 15% said they did not have to earn any money during the summer.

These figures suggest an upper limit to unpaid non-accredited service of about 15%. And this level will not be reached without an efficient system that matches the volunteer with an appropriate job and whose basic mechanics are in good working order.

Hence, under optimal conditions of reimbursement and academic recognition, it is estimated that the participation rate in the service curriculum would be 75% in the summer and 60% of all students during the academic year.

But the conditions that now exist are closer to minimal than to optimal. During summer 1968, 85% of the students who worked reported no significant relationship between their assignment and academic program and only 3% said it was part of a course requirement or expected to receive academic credit for it. The record improved during the academic year 1968-69, with 76% of the students who worked reporting no relationship and 8% saying it was a course requirement or that credit was anticipated. Another 8% said it was a subject of discussion with the class or the professor.

If participation in the service curriculum is to increase, a major shift would have to occur among the agencies where students work. Most of the work in the service curriculum would be done with public agencies or private non-profit organizations. Yet in summer 1968, these agencies engaged only 27% of the students in service or employment, while during academic year 1968-69, the engaged only 20% of such students.

A SERVICE-LEARNING CURRICULUM

One of the major demands made of the university curriculum is that it must be relevant. Relevant to business, relevant to life, relevant to the world and relevant to the individual. Such demands, however ill-defined, are no mere carpings. They reflect a genuine disenchantment of a significant part of the body of students enrolled in the universities.

Dissatisfaction alone, of course, does not validate criticism. Suggestions born of dissatisfaction must be weighed on their merits rather than their source. Nonetheless, the proposition that many students do not get what they want from universities at least suggests an examination of whether they get what they need or what society wants them to have. When a suggestion for change, which satisfies at least in part some of the expectations of the students and offers some elements of academic merit is put forth--that suggestion is worthy of careful examination by the university. Such is the case with the idea of service-learning.

This hyphenated concept, like most academic causes, is both slogan and idea. It requires some careful definition to avoid needless tendentiousness. The genesis of the idea in its current form lies in the experience of those students who, having joined such activities as the Peace Corps, voluntary service organizations, Job Corps, or worked in social agencies, have concluded that what they learned there was as valuable, and in some views more valuable, than what they learned in the classroom.

Recognizing that a university degree serves not only as a statement of academic achievement but as a certificate of adulthood for increasing numbers in our society, they have concluded with some justification that their learning from the service they rendered should be as much a part of that certification as the ordinary academic program. Hence, a demand for service-learning as a part of the program of the university is often

justified, not because of its academic content, but because of the universities' non-academic functions. None could argue that service-learning intrinsically has less claim to the attentions of the university than has basketball, but few would insist that such a comparison alone justifies service-learning a place on campus.

This report deals with a broad definition of service-learning, placing under that heading all those experiences that require of the participant work directed toward a generally accepted social good under some supervisory arrangement that insures a critical examination of the experience by the participant.

The arguments for experience outside the classroom as useful elements in education are valid on the face of it as long as education is defined broadly as any learning. The question at issue is whether experiences outside the classroom have a proper place in the curriculum of the university and, if so, what that place is.

Learning is characteristic of most experiences, but that alone does not justify an academic standing. The university has no monopoly on learning. Its only monopoly is on the granting of academic degrees. A degree represents learning of certain types, but it also serves as a certificate of admission to adult life for increasing numbers in the population. Thus, the university is both teacher and certifier while the student must seek both knowledge and a certificate. The relative importance of the two might be ascertained by determining whether students would prefer an excellent education without a degree or a degree without undue intellectual effort. Certainly, non-degree granting educational institutions are not available in great number.

The two tasks of the university with respect to the student, certification and education, often conflict with each other since the second is instrumental (or even essential) in our society while the first is more often a means to the second rather than an end in itself. As an example, the

university often states that to be educated, i.e. receive a degree, the student should know something of the history of western civilization. The insurance company argues that in order to sell its foods, i.e. work for them, the student should have a degree from a university.

Somewhat unfairly, but understandably, the university is then questioned about the relevance of the history of western civilization for the man who wishes to sell insurance. If the university replies that he will be a better insurance saleman for the experience, its logic or evidence is criticized since that may or may not be the case. If it argues he should not receive a degree unless he abides by the rules, it is called reactionary or out of date. If it replies he will be a better person, more interesting and happier for knowledge gained in such a course, it is questioned why that argument would not also apply to other courses or even other activities outside the classroom. If the university argues that education makes the individual distinct, it is said to be elitist; if it says educational experiences should be common and hence required, it is accused of stifling individual initiative.

In spite of these problems, the university continues to offer courses, to educate some of its students, and to seek organizational reform as a cure for all its ills. The difficulty faced by the university and faced by every student who wants to use the university educationally is that the university wants to educate, but the rules of certification designed initially to set and maintain standards among schools, have become a series of impediments that must be overcome in order to find employment rather than mere signs of progress on the way to increasing knowledge. Thus, hours of credit, quality points, uniform requirements passed are viewed less as simple indicators of progress and more as irksome restraints to be overcome by every trick available. Advisers ask what about the social science requirement rather than what have you learned about social science. The student asks whether physics is harder than

chemistry rather than which of the two best fits his interests. The resulting overconcern with grades is well known. The resulting weakening of education is less frequently denounced.

All these truisms do not alter the facts that some record of progress is desirable, some evaluation of the student must be made, and some common standards must be maintained, if academic degrees that have anything in common other than a name are to be granted at different times and places. Quite likely the system can and will be simplified. In the meantime, however, whenever the question of which courses or experiences are educational in the sense of the university is asked, the phraseology becomes should these courses or experiences carry academic credit and, if so, how much. Empirically, in spite of grave reservations and many rejections, most universities grant in their undergraduate programs academic credit for almost every conceivable kind of activity: writing papers, reading books, swimming, tooting, basket weaving, teaching, learning to speak, thinking, and even simply being in class--all these with many counterparts receive academic credit in liberal arts schools.

In view of the contradictory forces and variable precedents in establishing the university's curriculum, can the idea of service-learning be incorporated into the curriculum, what are the consequences for the curriculum of so doing, and what will the impact be on the idea of service-learning and learning for service as presented above?

CURRICULAR ALTERNATIVES

Service-learning could be incorporated into the program of the university in any one of several ways, each of which has some justification or precedents. Educational uses of the university often refer to the university as community rather than the university as curriculum. In that sense, the easiest and least disruptive means of associating service-learning with the university is to incorporate it as a part of the university unassociated with the curriculum. Under such conditions, service-learning would be parallel to the social services of religious organizations,

voluntary chapel, and certain sporting events. The student would be free to participate, but would not be compelled to do so. The educational value of his experience would not be subjected to curricular review and academic credit would be granted for his work.

Such an arrangement has several advantages: the student would be able to choose quite freely what he wanted to do, no student would be compelled to participate in the program, and difficulties in academic justification would be minimal. At the same time, disadvantages are also present: some campus organization would have to be created to operate the program or some existing organization would have to take on that task, the success of the program would depend on its ability to compete with other extracurricular activities, and effective mutual stimulation of the students would depend on the nature of the organization. While this kind of program would find little academic opposition, it might have financial opposition and would probably be short-lived unless well supported by faculty and administration.

A second arrangement would make service-learning a part of university requirements, but leave it outside the curriculum on the order of compulsory chapel, or required non-credit physical education. Such a structure would make the program continuous with extended participation; but would have the disadvantage of requiring a separate administrative structure and restructuring programs of education. Even if the range of service-learning programs were large, required participation would probably reduce the educational effectiveness of the program to that of another impediment on the way to graduation.

Some of the objections that can be raised about a non-curricular requirement are overcome by a requirement that carries academic credit. Such a requirement would not be an additional burden in the degree program, but would result in wide participation while the curricular standards would, in theory, insure acceptable educational content for the service-learning course(s). Required courses are notorious for becoming tedious

for students and faculty alike, especially when the possible range of material is large and standardization is impossible as would be the case with service-learning.

Only if some justification for a universal advantage in the course can be found should schools consider the addition of more required courses as part of the curriculum. Such is not the case for service-learning. That contention does not argue that society may not consider some form of universal service as appropriate for all youth. Indeed, that idea has something to recommend it especially while service in the military is required of only some youth. The university, however, would be ill-advised to add requirements when flexibility is being demanded more and more. Some schools, however, may find such a program useful, especially as part of an inter-session course and others may profit from their experience at a later time.

A corollary arrangement would be to make service-learning a part of some set of requirements in which it becomes an option. This approach would emphasize the service-learning program, give the university some experience in the academic merits of the program, and could be employed to increase the flexibility of the curriculum rather than decrease it. For example, service-learning could become an option along with compulsory ROTC or physical education. Those somewhat less academic elements of the university curriculum seem reasonable alternatives for service-learning, and giving the student that kind of option would have little immediate effect on the basic academic requirements of a university. The alternatives thus far discussed involve a specific program, in some cases of considerable size, within the structure of the university. Since that entails expenses and often raises difficult problems with respect to departmental settings, many schools would avoid them even if other aspects of the program were deemed suitable.

It is possible and in some cases desirable to view service-learning as special cases of education that will vary with discipline and should be

placed in the curriculum of the various departments in ways best suited to each discipline. Many courses in universities now are close to this arrangement. Especially those universities that will allow undergraduate students to register for courses in professional schools where service-learning of a kind has a reasonably long tradition. Schools of Theology and of Social Work often have such courses.

Many departments also offer special or flexible courses under such titles as independent research, independent studies, supervised research, etc., that allow a student to design with a faculty member an academically acceptable course that could incorporate the service-learning principle. Of course, such courses are also used to serve many other goals and generally would not carry a service-learning label. That would be a disadvantage to those who wish to develop the concept of service-learning as an alternative mode of education but an advantage to those who wish to use immediately the university structure.

At this point it may be useful to note that these programs are not mutually exclusive. Different kinds of service-learning could be incorporated into the program of a single institution in different ways. It is important to remember, however, that those who wish to use service-learning as a part of the university's educational program now have available in many cases the means of doing so and extensive changes in the university are not required for the introduction of service-learning.

OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the above curricular approach to sercive-learning, part of the report cited in Chapter I, the Confernece made specific observations and recommendations:

> First, academic credit for service-learning should be awarded on the basis of learning acquired, which assumes both assignment and performance standards.
>
> Second, the anticipated amount of credit should be determined before the service assignment begins.

Third, a normal ratio of hours worked to credit-hours received would, under optimal conditions, be about 30:1. That is, a full-time assignment for 12 weeks could yield up to 15 credit-hours for the participant under the quarter system.

Fourth, given the present structure and course requirements, up to one-fourth of the number of credit-hours required for graduation could be met through service-learning. Future changes in higher education, such as elimination of the credit system, may foster the strengthening of the bonds between service-learning and higher education.

Fifth, service-learning supervisors and other persons outside the academic community should be invited to join classroom discussions related to their work.

Finally, the possibilities for and problems of cross-crediting among institutions must be faced. The problems are numerous. Some institutions are on the quarter system and others on the semester system. There are tuition differentials, a lack of information about offerings at other institutions, and uncertainty over how much credit to award for service-learning. Present possibilities for cross-crediting for service-learning reside primarily with existing inter-institutional linkages and individual appeals.

VI. FINANCE

The question of reimbursement for service-learning participants was one of the most difficult issues to resolve. Common ground was established early when all conferees agreed that lack of money should not be a barrier to a service-learning experience. For example, those students who have to work full-time during summer and part-time during the academic year simply do not have enough free time to volunteer their services. They should receive sufficient reimbursement for their services so they do not have to hire themselves out for a job that, as the survey (Appendix B) tells us, is probably unrelated to their studies.

Even for students who had time to volunteer, there was some feeling that they too should receive stipends for accomplishing needed public service tasks. Several reasons were given for this position. First, the person would have a substantial basis for feeling responsible to the agency or for the task. Second, the agency would take a greater interest in the student if it had an investment in him. Third, paid personnel have more influence over agency policies and practices than volunteers. Finally, it seems inappropriate for this society to pay student labor for sales, clerical and other such jobs, but to insist that social service be done without monetary recognition.

On behalf of voluntarism, the most convincing argument was that some public service tasks would be left undone, and some students would be deprived of service-learning experiences, if volunteers were excluded. On the other hand, the argument that volunteers are more dedicated than paid personnel was not accepted.

The conclusion was that service-learning programs should be underwritten financially, thereby permitting a variety of financial arrangements but assuring every interested student enough support to enable him to have a service-learning experience.

As to sources of money for service-learning programs, the Conference recommended that a broad base of support should be sought so that no single contributor would obtain control over the program. Ultimately the sources of financial support for the service-learning program should reflect the benefits received. Thus a program should draw its funds in approximately equal shares from the agency being served, the student or educational institution, and the government or public interest foundation.

For example, the sources of the 1967 Atlanta Urban Corps budget were as follows:

College Work Study Program	$ 71,640.94
City of Atlanta	52,605.00
Contributions	33,100.00
Non-profit Agencies	26,302.00
Total	$183,647.94

In some cases, the input of the academic institution would be academic credit or counselors instead of money.

SOURCES OF FUNDS

Several possible federal sources for funding service-learning programs are noted at the end of this chapter. At present, the major contributor is the College Work-Study Program, with an estimated 15 to 20% of nearly 400,000 student participants engaged in public service activities off-campus. The Conference recommends that a minimum of 50% of the College Work-Study Program funds be allocated to off-campus service activities by 1973.

In order to assist colleges in identifying

new service opportunities off-campus, a national agency should be established and should concern itself with both urban and rural areas. Also, government agencies at all levels as well as private non-profit organizations should build into their budgets funds for the partial support of service-learning interns.

Business and industry may be approached for their support to service-learning programs in two ways. First, they should be made aware that they are part of the community. They take their profit from the community and have some responsibility to participate in community affairs. The good of the total community and the well-being of its citizens should be of critical importance to the business community. Second, if they can provide for college students as interns, it would be a rather effective recuitment device.

A business or industrial concern might be happy to finance an intern if he is required to report back to it from time to time. Thus, the business would have a good contact among the students and could have some feedback on the efforts of the intern in the community. Also, businesses could contribute management assistance to service-learning programs.

Foundations can respond promptly and may be helpful in launching service-learning programs. Emphasis should be placed on raising the money needed to set up a service-learning program. Money for stipends should be obtained from other sources. Foundations do not like long-range commitments so other sources must be sought for continuing support.

In attempting to secure state or local funds for a service-learning program, early planning is critical. Often there are laws governing such activity and these should be thoroughly examined. Also, the state or local government must be completely sold on the idea before it will be willing to furnish the program with any funds.

The most promising approach is to let a local

Government finance a student to work in an area of social need. In Atlanta the various municipalities in the surrounding area that do not have the funds to hire a professional to work on some of their problems might be able to finance an intern to work in the area of need.

One technique applicable to all funding sources is first to identify with the community a certain need, then to build into its solution the use of students for meeting that need. For example, the cities and towns of Georgia needed basic data on resources available, so the Georgia Municipal Association engaged 27 interns to compile information throughout the state for a central data bank available to all local, state or national agencies.

In examining the following list of possible federal sources for funding service-learning programs, two facts are readily apparent. First, there are numerous programs which might be utilized and several of them are well-funded. Second, each has its own special purposes and limitations; no single program meets the needs of all service-learning interns and for every college to attempt to assemble a service-learning "package" for all students would be very difficult.

FEDERAL PROGRAMS

1) College Work-Study - Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IV-C; to provide part-time (15 hours a week) work during academic year and full-time work at other times for post-secondary students; the student must have "substantial" need; $148,100,000 appropriated for fiscal year 1968-69.

2) Cooperative Education Program - Higher Education Amendment of 1968; authorizes grants to institutions of higher education to expand and strengthen student programs which alternate periods of full-time study and full-time employment, students work in jobs related to their career objectives that are undertaken as part of their college program; no funds appropriated through June 30, 1969.

3) Education for Public Service - Higher Education Amendment of 1968; authorizes support for grants and fellowships for students preparing to enter local, state or federal government service; no funds appropriated this year.

4) Law School Clinical Experience Program - Higher Education Amendment of 1968; to establish or expand programs to provide clinical experiences to law students, with preference given to preparation and trials of cases, Office of Education contracts with law schools; no funds appropriated for fiscal 1969.

5) Career Opportunities Program - Education Professions Development Act; designed to attract persons from low-income backgrounds, veterans, and college graduates into careers in schools serving low-income populations; one objective is to help schools create training programs based on work-study concepts; provides academic training and practical experience; program is funded but will finance only one project in each state.

6) Community Service and Continuing Education Programs - Title I, Higher Education Act of 1965; to assist in the solution of community problems by strengthening community service programs of colleges and universities; $10,000,000 appropriation in fiscal year 1968.

7) Educationally Deprived Children - Title I, Elementary Education Act of 1965; to provide financial assistance to local educational agencies serving areas with a concentration

of low-income families to enable them to expand and improve educational programs to meet the needs of educationally deprived children; $1,191,000,000 appropriated in fiscal year 1968, and $2,000,637,050 authorized in fiscal year 1969.

8) Follow Through - Economic Opportunity Act of 1964; to reinforce gains made by educationally disadvantaged children who have graduated from Head Start and other similar preschool programs by providing them with continued special attention in the early grades of school; made to local educational and community action agencies; $14,900,000 appropriated in fiscal year 1968.

9) Vocational Work-Study - Section 13, Vocational Education Act of 1963, authorizes grants to states to provide part-time employment for young people to help them begin or continue vocational education; made to State Boards for Vocational Education; $10,000,000 appropriated for 1968.

10) Vocational Education - George-Barden Act; provides grants to states for vocational education in agriculture, home economics, trades and industry, the distributive occupations, the fishery trades, and health occupations and for highly skilled technicians; $49,990,823 appropriated for fiscal year 1968.

11) Manpower Training - Manpower Development and Training Act, Title II-A (On-the-Job Training), Title II-B (Institutional Training), Title II-C (Redevelopment Areas); to fill manpower shortages by providing funds for institutional training, supplementary instruction for on-the-job training and training for redevelopment of unemployed or underemployed persons who cannot secure appropriate full-time employment without training.

12) Adult Basic Education - Title III, Section 309, Adult Education Act of 1966; to encourage and expand basic educational programs for adults to enable them to overcome language limitations, improve their basic education in preparation for occupational training and more profitable employment, and become productive and responsible citizens; appropriation of $38,640,000 in fiscal year 1968.

13) Attracting Qualified Persons to Education - Title V, Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended by Education Professions Development Act of 1967; to identify capable youth in secondary schools who may be interested in educational careers; to publicize available educational career opportunities, and to encourage qualified persons to enter or re-enter the field of education.

14) Teacher Corps - Title V-B, Higher Education Act of 1965 as amended by Education Professions Development Act of 1967; to improve educational opportunities for children in low-income areas and encourage colleges to broaden programs of teacher preparation by attracting and training teacher-interns; $13,500,000 appropriated in fiscal year 1968.

15) Educational Personnel Development Grants - Title V-C of Higher Education Act of 1965 amended by parts C and D of the Education Professions Development Act; to improve the quality of teaching and help meet critical shortages of personnel in elementary and secondary schools and in post-secondary vocational schools; 100% federal contribution, $43,500,000 appropriated in fiscal year 1969 for fellowships and grants and $37,750,000 in fiscal year 1968 for training programs.

16) Preschool and School Programs - Title VI-A, Foundation of Handicapped Children; grants to states for initiation, expansion and improvement of projects for preschool, elementary and secondary education of handicapped children;

100% federal contribution, $14,250,000 appropriated in fiscal year 1968.

17) Training Personnel for the Education of Handicapped Children - Grants for Teaching in the Education of Handicapped Children; to encourage improvement and expansion of training opportunities for teachers and other specialists engaged in, the education of handicapped children; trainee receives a stipend and other benefits.

18) Education of Handicapped Children, Research and Demonstration - Title III, Training of Teachers of Mentally Retarded and Other Handicapped Children; to provide grants for research studies designed to develop knowledge applicable to the education of handicapped children; 80% federal contribution.

19) Educational Research Training - Cooperative Research Act, amended by P. L. 89-10, Title IV; to provide program support for the training of educational researchers by establishing and maintaining research traineeships, fellowships, and internships; funds for undergraduates, graduate, and just-doctoral levels; up to 100% federal contribution.

20) Educational Research, Surveys and Demonstrations - Cooperative Research Act, amended by P. L. 89-10, Title IV, support for jointly financed cooperative arrangements with colleges and state educational agencies for research, surveys, and demonstrations in the field of education; average 80% federal contribution.

21) Vocational Research and Training - Section 4, Vocational Education Act of 1963, grants to develop research and training programs and experimental and pilot projects to meet vocational needs of youth; average 80% federal contribution.

VII. METHODS and PROGRAMS

In reviewing programs around the country which might fit the service-learning classification, the majority are found to fit into one of three categories; namely, student-sponsored service projects, curriculum-centered experience projects, and agency-directed service projects.

It is hard to find a campus without a student-run service project. Usually what is involved is a direct connection between a group of students wanting to help and a group of people needing help. A few faculty members may also be involved, but usually to assist with giving service or training students rather than to enhance the learning associated with the service activity. Estimates of the number of students involved in such projects normally run to several hundred thousand, a figure consistent with that obtained (by extrapolation) from the Student Manpower Survey.

Curriculum-centered experience projects are normally directed by faculty members for the purpose of acquainting students with their expected career fields and to give a "real-life" dimension to their academic studies. Curriculum interests predominate over service, as is well illustrated by practice-teaching programs in which the agency receiving the service, the local school, is often paid by the agency giving the service, the college. In addition to education, similar programs are found in such fields as engineering, medicine, social work and public administration.

Agency-directed service projects are run by public or private agencies primarily for the purpose of accomplishing a needed service. A secondary purpose often is to identify future employees. The educational aspects of such projects are

normally limited to the training needed to accomplish the assigned task.

The chart below (simplified for the sake of comparison) contrasts the stated emphases of the three most prevalent types of programs with service-learning potential.

	Student-Directed	Curriculum-Centered	Agency-Directed
Service Dimension	Strong	Weak	Strong
Learning Dimension	Weak	Strong	Weak
Student Involvement	Strong	Weak	Weak
Agency-University Linkage	Weak	Medium	Weak

A fourth type of program, difficult to classify, has developed recently as a result of the availability of funds, such as those specified for financial aid to students or for hiring disadvantaged youth. An example of this type is the PACE program of North Carolina, which helps students eligible for the College Work-Study Program find employment.

When such programs are analyzed, we find that what takes place is often quite different from the published purposes. For example, in recent surveys of returned Peace Corps and VISTA volunteers, the Interlude Research Project of Stanford Research Institute (see Bibliography) found that the respondents felt that they learned more than they accomplished. And this occurred with little organizational effort to enhance the learning experience.

EXAMPLES OF SERVICE-LEARNING PROGRAMS

In recent years, several programs have been structured as service-learning programs. In each case, provision has been made for useful service, for what is learned and giving it academic recognition, for student stipends, for student involvement and for linkages between the agency and the university. Different conclusions have been reached, reflecting varying conditions and needs, but each program has resulted in a dynamic balance among the several dimensions of service-learning.

Several colleges have exemplary service-learning programs. Among them are Yale which started its Experimental Five-Year B.A. program in 1965 based on a one-year overseas service experience and is in the process of adding a domestic branch. Radcliffe started its Education for Action program in 1966 with strong presidential and student leadership. Originally, students served as aides to Peace Corps Volunteers in the field, but emphasis has now shifted to student-initiated service projects both at home and overseas. The University of Oregon's School for Community Service and Public Affairs was established in 1967 and provides off-campus service activities for its 300 students each year. It has several full-time members of staff concerned primarily with leading weekly linkage seminars for the students in service. Outside money has been vital to each of these programs: $300,000 for Yale from the Carnegie Corporation, $50,000 for Radcliffe from the Ford Foundation, and $1,000,000 from Mrs. Lila Acheson Wallace of the Reader's Digest for the University of Oregon.

A regional group, the Southern Regional Education Board, has given strong support to the Resource Development Internship Program, begun in 1964 with the help of the Tennessee Valley Authority. Each intern has an assignment and a project committee, consisting of an academic adviser from the university, a supervisor from the agency with which he works, and a technical adviser. With the growth of this program, additional support has come from the U. S. Departments of Labor and Commerce, and the Office of Economic Opportunity.

If Commissioner Allen's hopes are realized (see Appendix A), the U. S. Office of Education's College Work-Study Program may become a major service-learning program of the federal government, even though its primary purpose was to help needy students pay their way through college. In contrast, the Teacher Corps, another Office of Education program, was designed from its 1966 beginnings as a service-learning program, with young people combining teaching duties in needy areas with government-financed study toward a higher degree.

The Urban Fellowship Program supported by the City of New York and the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation is the most recently established service-learning exemplar. Begun in 1969, participants serve one year as aides to top city officials, receive academic credit from their institutions, a $3,500 stipend from the Foundation and a minimum of $500 from their schools for expenses.

SERVICE-LEARNING GUIDELINES

The recommended model for a service-learning program in any area would have these features:

a. It would be based on the following principles of operation:
   1) Students see the importance of their assigned tasks.
   2) Internships require utilization of students' education.
   3) Both supervisor and student understand clearly their responsibilities.
   4) Intern assignments do not displace regular employees.
   5) Students consider in advance what they want to learn from assignments.
   6) All students receive stipends for their work.
   7) Students consult with academic advisers during jobs and write a report on completion.
   8) Academic recognition be accorded to students' learning experiences.
   9) Adequate follow-up be carried out when appropriate so that new interns build upon work of predecessors rather than simply repeating it.
   10) The program administration be non-political.

b. It would be based on a cooperative network comprising field experience courses, cooperative education departments, an Urban Corps, private and government-sponsored internships, student and faculty community service projects, and federal programs such as VISTA, Teacher Corps and Neighborhood Youth Corps.

c. It would have as a target the involvement of at least one-half the college student population of the area within five years of commencement.

d. Underwriting funds would be available to insure that no student was denied a service experience for lack of money.
e. Student stipends would be financed in roughly equal parts by the agency receiving the service, by education money such as tuition fees, and by national interest money coming from foundations and the federal government.

The recommended administrative agency for service-learning is a private, non-profit corporation, whose directors include community residents, students, faculty, municipal officials, labor leaders, business men, and other citizens as appropriate. While this is a useful model for comparison with other proposals, it may not be feasible for a variety of reasons, such as the time factor, securing operating funds, and staffing it.

In order to launch a service-learning program, it may have to be attached to an operating agency, such as city hall, a private community organization, a college or university, or a consortium of interests. The several service-learning interests identified in the previous paragraph should be represented in any case. And to preserve the service-learning balance, a corps of student administrators with previous service-learning experience is recommended.

AN ATLANTA MODEL

For reasons cited above, the service-learning agency should be sufficiently flexible and broad-based to deal with all agencies and colleges but not be an integral part of either. Also, students should play a major role in service-learning.

The Conference has concluded that there is an agency in Atlanta which so closely approximates these criteria that a new agency is not required. It is the Atlanta Urban Corps, and the Conference recommends that it assume prime responsibility for fostering, developing and assisting service-learning programs in Atlanta.

The Urban Corps was created with student initiative and strong support from city hall, colleges and universities and several local and regional

agencies. During 1969, it was housed in city hall with support from SREB. Early in 1970, it is scheduled to be housed in the Urban Life Center of Georgia State University. Although based at an educational institution, the recently established Urban Life Center is in the process of developing close alliances with other city institutions, both educational and governmental.

Although the Urban Corps was attached to the Mayor's Office in 1969, it was with the understanding that this was being done primarily for legal and financial reasons. The Urban Corps was assured and, in fact, had considerable autonomy as part of the Mayor's Office. It is understood that the Urban Corps will continue to be a largely autonomous body within the Urban Life Center.

To date, the Urban Corps has been concerned principally with administration of a program in which students become members of the Urban Corps and whose conditions of service are generally fixed. If it accepts the Conference suggestions, it would also become a clearinghouse of information on service-learning programs. Its officials would discuss the service-learning concept with college administrators, faculty and students. It would help to identify positions for service-learning students who were not members of the Urban Corps. Conversely, it would help agencies find students. It would be in touch with service-learning programs in other areas and facilitate the exchange of information as well as the interchange of students.

Of particular importance, the Urban Corps would become a one-stop service-learning center for students, staff and agency officials. Let's say a student wants to serve in a health project. The Urban Corps might put him in touch with someone on his own campus who could place him. Or it would tell him to call the volunteer coordinator at a hospital. Or it would invite him to apply to the Urban Corps.

To assist the Urban Corps in maintaining relative autonomy and to insure sustained interest in the service-learning idea, the Conference recommends appointment of a Service-Learning Advisory Board by

the Urban Corps. The Board would comprise some 35 persons including faculty, staff, students, and agency officials. Members of the Board would be among those called on by the Urban Corps to consult with colleges and agencies in the development of service-learning programs to meet particular interests.

To further faciliate service-learning programs in Atlanta, the Conference recommends that each college or university appoint one person as campus service coordinator. The coordinator would work closely with students, faculty, and financial aid officers on campus and with the Urban Corps off-campus. In this way, the interests of each campus would be insured while agency officials would not be overburdened by having to deal separately with numerous service-learning programs. Also, by coordinating programs with the Urban Corps, an equitable and efficient allocation of services could be maintained.

A NATIONAL MODEL

No single national model is advocated and none should be advocated. The Conference stands by its general principles of operation, and it is helping to shape a model for Atlanta, but it does not recommend an hierarchical national program.

Rather, national efforts should be facilitative of local, state and regional programs. A National Youth Service Foundation, along the lines suggested by Senator Hatfield in Senate Bill 1937 (April 22, 1969), which would underwrite service-learning projects by young people, is the kind of national effort we endorse. It would facilitate service-learning without programming it. At the same time, the magnitude of effort is important. The Foundation's funding would rise to $900 million dollars annually in three years. That level of support, given equivalent efforts by educational sources and local agencies, would, at $1,000 per per person, provide service-learning experiences for nearly 3,000,000 students by 1973.

The consequences of service-learning experiences by several million students would have a

tremendous impact on national manpower and educational needs and policies.

First, the student manpower would overcome much of the gap in the delivery of educational services, health services, environmental services, social services and protection services.

Second, the students would demonstrate that jobs could be elevated from "something you have to do to make ends meet" to an experience which combines accomplishment with educational growth.

Third, the relating of service to the college educational program would add a vitality and relevance to learning.

Thus, service-learning should become a cornerstone both of our national manpower policy and our educational policy.

One Atlanta Urban Corps intern, a law student, served as assistant to the director of the National Welfare Rights Organization in Atlanta. His task was to help organize the community--to inspire residents to attend meetings, to coordinate the meetings themselves, and to distribute new information concerning welfare rights to the residents. He also counseled recipients on their problems and misunderstandings concerning welfare.

VIII. APPENDICES

Appendix A.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUNG PEOPLE TODAY

Address by James E. Allen, Jr.
Assistant Secretary of Education
and
U. S. Commissioner of Education
at the A.S.L.C. Inaugural Meeting, June 30, 1969

None of you would be here today at this conference on service-learning if you were not aware of how different the educational needs of young people are today from those of past generations. All of you know that the needs of the new generation are defined by its aspirations. And that aspiration is the edge of the great divide between the generations.

For past generations--and I mean not only the parents but the older brothers and sisters of today's young people--the touchstone was vocation. The career as a means to the economic ends of material well-being. The career as a means to the psychological ends realized in achievement, success and prestige.

Sometimes, of course, members of preceding generations thought of the career as an avenue of service to conceptions beyond the self--there are many professions with a humanitarian dimension in both theory and practice. But for most people, the furtherance of such ideals as the betterment of society was accepted as an extra-curricular activity. Something to be done after the serious business of the day, if time permitted.

For large and increasing numbers of young people today this situation is not only changed but

reversed. It is the pursuit of goals beyond the self that comes first and the money and success that take second place.

Clearly it will take a new kind of education to accommodate such a change in traditional ways of thinking about man and society. We are still in the process of identifying it, but some things we know.

For example, we can be sure that an education that fits the needs of young people today must be broader than the school. Among the many artificialities the young reject is the idea that the classroom and the library are the best, if not the only, places for learning. Today's youth is as bored with four wall abstractions as it is with materialism.

Today's youth want an education geared to realities more vital than either theory or things. It is less interested in ideas than in values. Young people want their education to take them past knowledge to wisdom, and past wisdom to action --the kind of action that can translate their energy and their vision into new patterns of life.

The "now" generation doesn't want to wait for any of this. It finds the old hierarchies an ineffectual structuring of society. It has no use for the protocol of power as we have known it.

The new attitudes of young people toward education and the life for which it is presumably preparing them are sometimes criticized as irresponsible. But it is precisely responsibility that they are asking for. Some people think youth wants to start at the top and rearrange society without bothering to find out what makes our institutions operate. In my opinion, it is the other way around. Young people want first-hand experience with our institutions to teach them their sociology. They want to learn the mechanics of social change by experimenting where it can actually happen.

This is the positive side of activism. This is what has taken students out of classrooms and away from well-paid, conventional jobs, leading

them instead into the Peace Corps, VISTA and the Teacher Corps. This positive activism has moved young people past the Peace Corps, VISTA and the Teacher Corps; it has inspired them to invent their own ways of reaching people who need help. Storefront schools, street academies and many other innovative institutions testify to their enterprise.

By now it is quite clear that the activism of the 1960's is much different from that of other decades. The meaning of the difference has been captured in the words of Arthur Mendel, professor of Russian history at the University of Michigan, "youth no longer speaks for itself; it defines an era."

At the same time, in all their eagerness for a chance to deal directly with the raw stuff of history-in-the-making, today's young people continue to want what school in the old classroom-and-library sense of the word should and can give them. They want a background against which they can measure their experience. They want an education that breaks down the old barriers between school and community without breaking down either the school or the community.

This is what work-study programs are all about. There is no trend in education more promising, and the federal government is wholeheartedly behind it. Secretary Finch and my colleagues in the Office of Education are convinced advocates of the work-study concept, and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare is actively involved in promoting it.

It is very much in line with President Nixon's emphasis on volunteer effort as the key to community renewal. The President has called for a national clearinghouse on voluntary activities, with a computerized data bank to make available information about what has been tried and where, how well it worked, and what the problems were. The student employees working at HEW this summer will help assemble information of this kind on the volunteer activities of the young.

As you know, HEW is responsible for administering a program of federal grants to colleges which provides some 350,000 students with the opportunity to work on or off the campus during their college career. HEW can pay up to 80% of the wages of the students as they partake of educational experiences of working in a wide range of socially constructive projects. The scope of their activities is as broad as the social scene.

Of the 350,000 young people taking part in such work-study programs, most have been employed on their campuses, but increasing numbers are employed in local government agencies, schools, hospitals and other organizations, public and private.

We hope to learn from student community service activities wherever they are taking place. In Michigan, for example, we know that students are leading the way in productive volunteer activities for various segments of the population of their state. Currently, some 10,000 students are at work on projects many of which they have developed on their own initiative and maintain without much financial help from government sources. As an example of the varied and numerous projects, agriculture students from Michigan State University work together with inner city people in developing community garden cooperatives.

Elsewhere in the nation we find students contributing other types of social service to their communities. There is the Memphis Area Project South which sponsors "clothes closets" for needy families. Through this project, students also collaborate in planned parenthood programs in South Memphis and help in nutrition classes for low-income people.

Your own city has always been noted for its progressiveness. The fact that Atlanta is hosting the opening of the six-month conference is a fine example. It is equally encouraging to see Atlanta adopt the program of the Urban Corps as a model to meet urban needs.

Last summer there were 76,000 students employed in programs supported by federal work-study funds.

This summer, the Office of Education will have 225 students on its own payroll. I should like to tell you something about the projected activities of these summer employees. A goal of the summer program is to promote communication between government and the youth community.

Some students will be organizing seminars for the Office staff on topics of concern and "relevance" to students today. Such topics include curriculum reform, university administration, urban universities and an urban extension service. Other students will be researching programs and practices of the Office as related to student and youth participation. In particular we hope they will gather and analyze information on activities in the areas of work-study and volunteer community service, in order to help us determine where federal involvement might be most constructive.

We can already begin to see the shape of some of the problems to be dealt with. One is how to get more of the students involved in work-study programs off the campus, into the community. We would like to see the ratio of on-campus to off-campus work reversed, with the majority working off-campus instead of the opposite situation which prevails now.

Another problem is how to overcome the dilemmas and disadvantages of the work-study program, such as the difficulty of integrating new people into established organizations on a short-time basis. Another item is the accreditation dilemma--it is agreed that there should be recognition of service as a part of higher education, yet some universities have found that formal accreditation of community work turns it into a nine-to-five routine and diminishes dedication. However, other universities and colleges have developed means for granting academic credit to learning-service activities, making them integral to the academic life.

These are not impossible problems. Like you, we believe that what Aristotle said is true, "What we have to learn to do, we learn by doing." We, too, will learn by doing.

We feel that we are opening up avenues of many kinds--between youth and the larger community, between youth and government, between the generations. We are committed to the new view of educational needs that this implies.

The experience of groups like yours will be helpful to us as we try to adapt the federal government's role to the changes taking place in our society. We look forward to your recommendations as you review and study the learning-service concept in the months ahead. I hope we can draw on the report of your deliberations as a source of new models for student contribution to community renewal.

With so much of the business of America and the world still unfinished, it is heartening indeed to observe that perhaps the greatest awareness of this unfinished business exists in the young.

The need, therefore, is to concentrate on ways of helping the young to realize the potential of their new sense of purpose and spirit for service. This involves intensive efforts--far greater than yet evidenced. It also places upon our colleges and universities the obligation to examine their policies and practices and to make those adjustments necessary for the proper exercise of student participation. So rather than challenging youth, it is they who are challenging us and it is, I believe, a most heartening and hopeful situation when exhortation is more needed by age than by youth.

Appendix B.

STUDENT MANPOWER SURVEY FOR ATLANTA

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Instructions and questionnaire items are given below. The number at the end of each question is the total number of persons answering that question; the number to the left of each item is the percentage of respondents who circled that item.

Instructions

The purpose of this survey is to determine the collegiate manpower potential of metropolitan Atlanta. Your help in answering these questions will be greatly appreciated. After filling in the date and your field of study, please circle the number or letter next to the correct answer, as in the sample item below. For each question, please circle only the one number or letter most nearly correct.

Sample: What is the capital of Georgia?

1. Macon
2. Savannah
3. Augusta
4. Atlanta
5. Athens

Date:

1. What is your major field of study? (1668 Respondents)

18.1%	Social Sciences
15.8	Business
15.1	Engineering
13.8	Humanities
12.1	Natural Sciences
11.7	Other
7.3	Education
3.1	Law
2.9	Undecided

2. What College or university do you attend? (1668)	27.9%	Georgia State College
	24.1	Georgia Tech
	15.6	Emory University
	9.0	Oglethorpe College
	8.1	Agnes Scott College
	6.1	Clark College
	4.9	Morris Brown College
	4.3	Spelman College
3. Respondent (1661)	55.0%	Male
	45.0	Female
4. What class are you in? (1639)	24.0%	Freshman
	24.5	Sophomore
	22.7	Junior
	20.9	Senior
	5.6	Graduate
	0.3	Special
	2.0	Other
5. How old are you? (1493)	1.1%	Under 18
	14.7	18
	25.3	19
	22.2	20
	18.2	21
	13.4	22
	5.0	23 or over
6. What is your marital status? (1665)	83.1%	Single
	15.6	Married
	1.2	Divorced or separated
	0.1	Widowed
7. How many dependents do you have? (1654)	66.9%	0 (primary support comes from parents or guardian)
	22.3	1 (claim self as dependent)
	5.7	2 (self plus one other)
	5.0	3 or more

8. Where is your permanent residence? (1660)	46.5%	Metro Atlanta
	34.6	Out-of-state
	18.9	Georgia, outside Atlanta
9. What is your draft status? (1529)	41.0%	Not applicable
	35.5	2S
	6.5	1D
	4.6	1Y
	4.6	Other
	3.2	4A
	2.1	1A
	1.4	2A
	1.1	4F
10. What is your primary source of income while in school? (1565)	50.3%	Parents
	16.2	Present employment
	11.1	Scholarship, fellowship, or grant
	8.1	Other
	7.3	Student loan
	7.1	Previous employment
11. What is your secondary source of income while in school? (1564)	25.4%	Parents
	21.4	Previous employment
	19.1	None
	14.5	Present employment
	7.9	Scholarship, fellowship, or grant
	6.0	Student loan
	5.8	Other
12. Do you plan to return to school next year? (1650)	77.5%	Yes, to the same school
	13.2	No
	9.3	Yes, to a different school

A. Part-time Work and Volunteer Service

If you have spent some time this school year in paid employment or volunteer service, please complete this section. If not, skip to section B.

13. Where did you perform the service or employment? (881)	69.8%	Off campus
	20.4	On campus
	9.8	Both on and off campus
14. On the average, how much time did you spend on it? (874)	14.3%	Up to 5 hours per week
	13.6	5 to 10 hours per week
	20.5	10 to 15 hours per week
	32.3	15 to 30 hours per week
	19.3	Over 30 hours per week
15. To what extent was your previous education and training utilized? (880)	19.9%	Not at all
	22.2	A little
	28.0	Some
	19.2	Substantially
	7.0	Fully
	3.7	Over 100% (Had to stretch beyond previous training)
16. What was the primary reason you took the assignment? (837)	71.6%	To earn money
	14.6	To learn something or gain experience
	5.1	To help people in need
	4.3	Other
	3.2	To do something relevant
	1.2	To understand others better

17. For whom did you perform this assignment? (823)	50.9%	Private business or industry
	23.0	College or university
	6.1	Other
	5.6	Private, non-profit organization
	5.0	Federal agency
	2.9	State agency
	2.6	Church
	2.3	Municipal agency
	1.7	County agency
18. What was your rate of compensation? (847)	12.2%	None (i.e., volunteer service)
	2.0	Less than $1.00 per hour
	17.2	$1.00 - $1.61 per hour
	28.8	$1.61 - $2.00 per hour
	26.6	$2.01 - $3.00 per hour
	7.7	$3.01 - $4.00 per hour
	5.5	Over $4.00
19. What is the most significant relationship between your assignment and your regular academic program? (854)	76.0%	None
	8.4	Other
	4.9	Part of course requirement
	4.6	Subject of class discussion
	3.2	Subject of discussion with professor
	2.9	Academic credit awarded or expected

B. Your Summer - 1968

20. What were you primarily engaged in last summer? (1619)

58.9%	Working
15.4	Attending school
10.7	Working and attending school
7.8	Traveling
4.4	Other
1.5	Attending military camp
1.3	Performing volunteer service

Note: If you worked or performed volunteer service last summer, please answer Questions 21-27. If not, skip to Section C.

21. Where did you perform the service or employment? (1176)

49.9%	Metro Atlanta
34.8	Out-of-state
15.3	Georgia, outside Atlanta

22. On the average, how much time did you spend on it? (1182)

3.1%	Up to 8 hours per week
9.1	8 to 25 hours per week
11.7	25 to 35 hours per week
56.7	35 to 45 hours per week
19.4	Over 45 hours per week

23. To what extent was your previous education and training utilized? (1177)

22.8%	Not at all
19.2	A little
28.5	Some
20.0	Substantially
5.4	Fully
4.2	Over 100% (Had to stretch beyond previous training)

24. What was the primary reason you took it? (1127)	75.5%	To earn money
	16.4	To learn something or gain experience
	2.7	Other
	2.2	To do something relevant
	2.2	To help people in need
	1.0	To understand others better
25. For whom did you perform it? (1151)	63.6%	Private business or industry
	7.8	Federal agency
	6.3	Private, non-profit organization
	5.6	State agency
	5.0	College
	4.7	Other
	3.0	Municipal agency
	3.0	County agency
	0.9	Church
26. What was your rate of compensation? (1160)	3.1%	None (i.e., volunteer service)
	2.7	Less than $1.00 per hour
	18.6	$1.00 - $1.60 per hour
	33.6	$1.61 - $2.00 per hour
	28.4	$2.01 - $3.00 per hour
	8.4	$3.01 - $4.00 per hour
	5.1	Over $4.00
27. What was the most significant relationship between your service/employment and your regular academic program? (1160)	84.5%	None
	0.9	Academic credit awarded or expected
	2.0	Part of course requirement
	4.3	Subject of discussion with professor
	8.3	Other

C. Your Summer Plans - 1969 - All Students

28. Which one of the following activities best describes what you expect to be doing this summer? (1557)	49.8%	Employment
	23.3	Employment and attend school
	15.1	Attend school
	3.9	Travel
	2.9	Military
	2.7	Don't know
	1.8	Other
	0.5	Volunteer service
29. If you plan to work, do you have a definite job lined up? (1513)	59.0%	Yes
	29.7	No
	11.2	Not applicable
30. How much money do you feel you must make this summer? (1531)	15.3%	None
	6.7	Up to $250
	15.8	$251 - $500
	17.9	$501 - $750
	17.8	$751 - $1000
	26.5	Over $1000

Several hundred internships with urban development agencies are expected to be available in Atlanta for college students this summer. The work assignments will include, among others, health services, recreation, community planning, legal services, basic education, and job development. The duration will be 12 weeks. Each student will have a job supervisor and an academic adviser, attend seminar discussions, and prepare a final report.

In Questions 31-37, assume that you presently have no commitments for the summer of 1969; would you probably seek this kind of internship (answer each question "yes" or "no"):

31. If you received no academic credit and had to pay a $100 to $500 fee for the internship? (1580)	4.9%	Yes
	95.1	No

32. If you received no academic credit and enrolled as a volunteer (no fee, no stipend)? (1573)	20.9% Yes 79.1 No
33. If you received no academic credit and were given a stipend equal to the amount shown in your answer to Question 30? (1551)	68.3% Yes 31.7 No
34. If you received from 3 to 6 hours of academic credit and had to pay a $100-$500 fee for the internship? (1560)	15.4% Yes 84.6 No
35. If you received from 3 to 6 hours of academic credit and enrolled as a volunteer (no fee, no stipend)? (1560)	39.6% Yes 60.4 No
36. If you received from 3 to 6 hours of academic credit and also received a stipend equal to the amount shown in your answer to Question 30? (1550)	81.5% Yes 18.5 No
37. If you would seek an internship under at least one of the above conditions, in which field would you most prefer to serve? (1410)	29.1% Education 17.8 Recreation 16.2 Legal services 8.3 Community organization 8.2 Health 6.2 Housing and land use 5.5 Other 5.3 Job development 3.3 Manpower training

D. Your Plans for Academic Year 1969-70

38. What do you expect will be your availability in academic year 1969-70 for a part-time work or service assignment off-campus? (1605)	14.7%	A necessity
	31.5	A possibility
	29.3	Very unlikely
	12.0	Not applicable--will not be in school
	12.4	Don't know

If you plan to attend a college or university next year, please answer "yes" or "no" to Questions 39-42. Would you be interested in working or serving off-campus. . .

39. If you received neither academic credit nor payment? (1430)	13.7%	Yes
	86.3	No
40. If you received about 3 hours per semester of academic credit, but no payment? (1411)	39.0%	Yes
	61.0	No
41. If you received no academic credit but were paid at the rate of $1.60 per hour? (1419)	48.7%	Yes
	51.3	No
42. If you received about 3 hours per semester of academic credit and were paid at the rate of $1.60 per hour? (1419)	70.0%	Yes
	30.0	No
43. If you answered "yes" to Question 42 above, how much time would you be prepared to devote to your work or services? (994)	7.7%	Up to 3 hours per week
	19.4	3 to 6 hours per week
	26.1	6 to 10 hours per week
	28.6	10 to 15 hours per week
	18.2	Over 15

E. An Alternative Curriculum - All Students

Suppose you could choose to spend one-fourth of your time in college in meaningful work assignments in the human services or economic development fields. You would have a job supervisor and an academic adviser, attend seminar discussions and prepare a final report. Your course requirements would be reduced by one-fourth of the present total. Assume no increase in the cost of your education.

44. Would you probably select this option? (1577)	55.9%	Yes
	40.7	No
	3.4	Only under certain conditions
45. What kind of assignment would you select? (942)	88.6%	Related to your field of study
	11.4	Outside your field of study
46. What period of assignment would you prefer? (917)	52.0%	Part-time throughout college
	19.5	Full-time during summers
	12.2	Full-time for one quarter each year
	6.7	Substitute for senior year
	4.1	Substitute for junior year
	2.4	Substitute for sophomore year
	0.7	Substitute for freshman year
47. Where would you prefer the assignment to be? (922)	67.1%	In metro Atlanta
	5.1	In Georgia, outside Atlanta
	10.1	Elsewhere in U.S.A. - urban setting
	3.4	Elsewhere in U.S.A. - rural setting
	14.3	In a foreign country

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